REPORT RESUMES

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RESOURCE PAPERS ON THE DISADVANTAGED.
DELAWARE OCCUPATIONAL RES. COORD. UNIT, DOVER

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DESCRIPTORS- *DISADVANTAGED GROUPS, VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION, *PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT, *REHABILITATION PROGRAMS, *EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS, ADULT BASIC EDUCATION, GUIDANCE COUNSELING, BEHAVIOR CHANGE, TEACHING TECHNIQUES, *LITERATURE REVIEWS,

THE LITERATURE ON THE DISADVANTAGED IS REVIEWED IN FOUR RESOURCE PAPERS TO PROVIDE INFORMATION USEFUL IN UNDERSTANDING AND DEVELOPING PROGRAMS FOR DISADVANTAGED PERSONS AND TO PROVIDE LOCAL SCHOOLS WITH RESOURCE MATERIAL TO HELP IN WRITING PROPOSALS. IN "REHABILITATING THE DISADVANTAGED, A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE," R. A. EHRLE DISCUSSES THE DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO IDENTIFYING THE DISADVANTAGED, THE ORIGINS OF THEIR STATUS, AND POSSIBLE TREATMENT AS DESCRIBED IN THE PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE. "CULTURAL METHODS AND ACTIVITIES NEEDED TO OVERCOME INADEQUACIES OF CHILDREN WHO ARE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT," BY RUTH M. LAWS, DISCUSSES A VARIETY OF PROMISING METHODS AND ACTIVITIES FOR CHILDREN WHO ARE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT. "DEVELOPING COUNSELING AND PLACEMENT SERVICES FOR PSYCHOLOGICALLY DISADVANTAGED YOUTH," BY R. A. EHRLE, IS CONCERNED WITH A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO IDENTIFYING AND BRIEFLY DESCRIBING SEVEN MAJOR METHODS OF BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION. "GOALS OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION BASED ON THE NEEDS THEORY," RUTH M. LAWS SUGGESTS THAT TEACHERS MUST LEARN TO IDENTIFY SOME OF THE EMOTIONAL NEEDS OF ADULTS IN THEIR CLASSROOMS, TO RECOGNIZE BEHAVIOR SYMPTOMATIC OF THOSE NEEDS, AND TO DEVELOP TECHNIQUES, UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN MEETING THEM. A SUMMARY OF MAJOR POINTS IN DEVELOPING PROGRAMS FOR PERSONS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS, AND THE PROVISIONS OF THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1963 RELATING TO THESE PERSONS ARE INCLUDED. THE BIBLIOGRAPHIES ACCOMPANYING THE RESOURCE PAPERS CONTAIN 127 REFERENCES. (MM)

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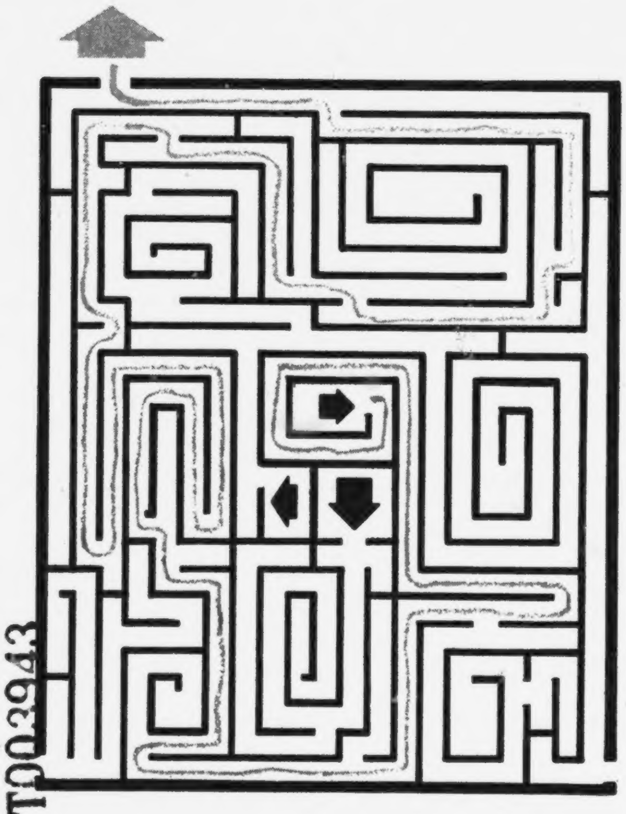
RESOURCE PAPERS ON THE DISADVANTAGED



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Resource Papers About the Disadvantaged

FOREWORD

All of the problems involving the disadvantaged have been the object of current national concern. No doubt the amount of literature available on the subject causes difficulty in determining just where to begin looking for answers.

The Delaware Occupational Research Coordinating Unit is concerned with the promotion of effective occupational education programs at all levels in the development of a total program of education.

This material is intended to:

- Provide information that will assist in understanding and developing programs for disadvantaged persons.
- Provide local schools with resource material to help in the writing of proposals.

This review of the literature will give the reader a broad perspective of the current thinking in this area. It may not solve all the problems, but it will stimulate thought and provide sources for further reading.

As the competition for federal funding of local research proposals increases, more sophistication will be required to "sell" your ideas through the form of a written proposal. We hope this material will provide you with much useful information, as well as illustrate a technique for noting and using references in writing. It could be used by local schools in writing their proposals and to help validate the ideas expressed in their project.

Appreciation is extended to Dr. Raymond A. Ehrle, Director of Rehabilitation Counselor Education, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, and Dr. Ruth M. Laws, Supervisor of Planning and Vocational-Technical Research, Vocational-Technical Division, for permission to reproduce their material.

RESOURCE PAPERS ABOUT THE DISADVANTAGED

FOREWORD

#1 REHABILITATING THE DISADVANTAGED: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Topics:

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- Genesis in Problem Families
- Verbal and Intellectual Disability
- Inadequate Motivation and Work Value Orientation
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- Treatment:
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#2 CULTURAL METHODS AND ACTIVITIES NEEDED TO OVERCOME INADEQUACIES OF CHILDREN WHO ARE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT

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#3 DEVELOPING COUNSELING & PLACEMENT SERVICES FOR PSYCHOLOGICALLY DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

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#4 GOALS OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION BASED ON THE NEEDS THEORY

Topics:

Identification of Needs
Frustration - Aggression Hypothesis
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#5 A SUMMARY OF MAJOR POINTS IN DEVELOPING PROGRAMS FOR PERSONS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Topics:

Characteristics of Persons with Special Needs
Provisions of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 Relating to Persons with Special Needs

Research on the Disadvantaged Under the

ESEA of 1965

Persons continuing in-depth reading on problems of the disadvantaged will find the projects funded under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 of interest to them. A complete file of these project reports, in the form of ERIC microfiche film cards, is available for your reference through the Office of Research & Publications, Delaware Department of Public Instruction. There is also available a Microfiche Reader-Printer in that office. This machine is designed for viewing as well as print out of selected pages from this film card. Arrangements for use of this service can be made by contacting Mrs. Julia Burris, Research Assistant for ESEA, Title I Statistics (ext. 489) of that office.

The catalog of projects on the disadvantages has been distributed by the Office of Research and Publications and is available in the local school district for your reference.

The contact address for the Educational Research Information Center on the Disadvantaged is:

Dr. Edmund W. Gordon
ERIC Clearinghouse on the DISADVANTAGED
Yeshiva University
55 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York 10003

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REHABILITATING THE DISADVANTAGED:
A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Raymond A. Ehrle

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REHABILITATING THE DISADVANTAGED: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Raymond A. Ehrle

The culturally deprived, disadvantaged, ghetto dwellers, impoverished, school dropouts and delinquents tend to be lumped together as a single entity in many contemporary news stories and even in reports in professional journals. Many individuals so characterized may exhibit atypical behaviors while others suffer from a common syndrome. Yet there is evidence to suggest that despite certain common characteristics this is not a homogeneous group. At the same time, there is an unfortunate tendency to equate causation with correlation. The purpose of this paper is to discuss different approaches to identifying the "disadvantaged", to discuss the genesis of their status and to suggest possible treatment modalities.

Who Are The Disadvantaged?

Lipton (1962) addresses himself to this issue when he suggests that the term "cultural deprivation" has come into being as a meaningless term because we have fallen into the trap of identification and diagnosis by terminology rather than by etiology. He reports that a thorough examination of the children who are characterized as culturally deprived reveals the same spread of cultural, social, economic and emotional differences as appears in the so-called middle class. And Kvaraceus (1964), who notes the surge of public interest since 1950 for the education and rehabilitation of deviant children and youth, stresses the need for research on "normals" to really understand these deviants. He indicates that a major problem exists in attempting to interpret the fragmentary and contradictory data available on the emotionally disturbed and socially maladjusted.

Other authors, Havighurst (1965) and Ornstein (1966), use operational definitions. Havighurst defines the disadvantaged in terms of social origins and stresses the importance of verbal ability. He suggests that the socially disadvantaged child lacks: (a) a family environment which sets an example of reading or which provides a variety of play experiences that challenge the use of hands and mind, and (b) a family conversational experience which stimulates development of verbal behavior and curiosity. He concludes that the disadvantaged comprise about fifteen per cent of the school-aged population.

Ornstein, on the other hand, stresses the importance of economic subsistence level as an indicator. By using one formula he suggests that, according to the 1960 census, 70 million Americans could be included in the poverty group and that financial disadvantage causes other disadvantages in a mutual and reciprocal relationship. He defines specific aspects of deprivation as (a) self-deprivation, which is interpreted to mean an injured or deficient personality, (b) social deprivation, which is interpreted to mean that the individual often turns to a delinquent sub-culture, (c) environmental deprivation, which is actual physical deprivation, (d) parental deprivation, and (e) racial experience of a negative nature combined with educational deprivation.

Another study (Schneiderman, 1964) was done to test whether persons who are chronically impoverished share a distinctive life style. He started with an N of 1,384 relief family cases and selected 35 client families for intensive study using the Harrison Chronicity formula. The results indicated that the relief client group did, in fact, achieve a statistically significant level of consensus on three of the five value orientations; namely, (a) present time orientation, (b) harmony with nature orientation, and (c) being versus a doing activity value orientation.

Becker (1965) used a delinquency scale, the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale and the Gordon Personal Inventory, ramdomly administering these instruments to 609 federal reformatory residents along with other tests and demographic measures. Product moment intercorrelations among the variables suggested that psychopathy and neuroticism, as measured by the delinquency scale, were not independent factors. Both appeared together to assess a personality dimension best described as the "acting-out neurotic".

The most comprehensive description and classification of personality variables which identify the disadvantaged was accomplished by Leshner and Snyderman (1966) working with failure cases in a vocational development program. They concluded that the failure cases fell into four groups: (a) Youth who typically could not relate to anyone or sustain an organized mode of behavior. Some acted out their problems anddisrupted serivce for others while others exhibited superficial conforming behavior as a means of testing or manipulating authority. These youth were classified broadly as individuals with character problems; (b) Youth who were highly immature, suggestable and responsive to any diverting stimulus. They also lacked the ability to make plans and could neither organize systematic behavior patterns nor direct their activities. They were considered emotionally and socially immature as a result of constricting and shallow developmental backgrounds; (c) Youth who were unable to tolerate any structured activity or restraint. Since by definition work implies a channeling of energies, these youth rebelled against supervision, worked sporadically, attended when the occasion suited them, and resisted any attempts to regulate and rehabilitate them. They had inadequate defense mechanisms and were classified as emotionally unstable; (d) Youth who could perceive no meaning in a work situation because it was not relevant to any of their life experiences. They reacted inappropriately to work situations and demands. They withdrew from involvement or reacted with frustration, fear, or aggressive behavior.

A number of other studies indicate similar patterns. One was reported by Quay (1966) in which the problem behavior of 122 twelve year old institutionalized delinquent males was factor-analyzed, based on behavior ratings. This resulted in the identification of three factors labeled, (a) psychopathic-unsocialized, (b) neurotic-disturbed, and (c) subcultural-socialized. These three categories accounted for sixty-five per cent of the common factor variance. On case history analysis, four factors (the above three plus inadequacy-immaturity) accounted for sixty-six per cent of the common factor variance. The author suggests that these four factors appear to be the primary dimensions of problem behavior common to all children. He concludes that these factors are not unique to delinquents and cites earlier research to support this position. His findings appear to be consistent with those of Leshner and Snyderman and also appear to be consistent with the recommendations of Kvaraceus concerning the need for additional research on "normal" children.

Genesis in Problem Families

There is increasing evidence available that regardless of where "disadvantage" is found it is characterized by readily indentifiable patterns of behavior, i.e. high school dropout rates increase, children have increasing difficulty in conceptualizing in school, and a concurrent inability to defer gratification exists in many areas of social functioning.

Burgess (1964) conducted a study of 5,398 white and Negro Aid to Dependent Children families caught in the vicious circle of change and consequent public dependence. Over sixty-five per cent of the ADC families were dependent presumably because of divorce, separation, desertion, unmarried parenthood, or imprisonment of the father. In short, these families were considered to be dependent due to the absence of, or lack of, an effective male parent. A study by Cohen (1964) reveals the most important generative factor distinguishing the lower-lower from the working classes to be the unstable employment characteristic of the lower class. This finding might also be interpreted to underscore the importance of certain attitudes and values and to reflect upon the effectiveness of the male parent in our culture.

Schorr (1964) suggests that attitudes associated with the culture of poverty are a realistic response to the facts of poverty. His research demonstrated that poor nutrition and housing produced reactions associated with a culture of poverty including depression, apathy, and lethargy. And Cavan (1959), stressing differential cultural values, suggests that lower class culture permits and regards as normal poverty, relief, dependency, free sex relations, and physical combat within the family. Both juvenile and adult arrests are lower in middle and upper classes. Certain family relationships are found associated with delinquency as defined by the middle and upper classes. These include broken homes, unmarried family members, absence of the father, and organization of the family around the mother. She concludes that the extent to which lower class families can move up and adopt the attitudes and attributes of the middle class families is the extent to which juvenile delinquency should decline.

Much of the literature suggests that there is a high degree of either correlation or causation of disadvantage and lower-lower class "problem families". Family disorganization or even partial disorganization affects not only a couple and their children but also imposes some handicaps that may remain for several generations (Faris, 1947). Furthermore, Pavenstadt (1965) in a research study of children from 30 stable upper-lower class homes compared to children from disorganized "multi-problem" families found that normal personality development even without intellectual stimulation permitted children from stable upper-lower class homes to learn in the first grade. On the other hand, retardation and deviation in personality development in children of multi-problem families interfered seriously with learning.

Verbal and Intellectual Disability

Newton (1960)hypotesized the verbal destitution serves as the pivotal barrier to learning. This hypothesis is based on what is known about the interrelation of language arts and of social class influence on language. A basic type of language poverty is common to many retarded readers. In a case study of 1,055 seriously retarded readers, she concluded that the low level of their verbal skills makes it almost impossible for them to assimilate concepts equal to their learning potential.

Siller (1957) reported a study designed to relate socio-economic status to conceptual ability. A measure of status attitudes and four conceptual tests were administered to groups of 99 high-status and 82 low-status white sixth grade public school children. Results showed that the high-status children did better than low-status children on all tests of conceptual ability, especially those involving verbal material. The high-status group also selected more definitions of an abstract type than did the low-status group.

Another researcher (Cutts, 1962) reported that language difficulties and reading problems of culturally deprived youth are traceable to improper placement of developmental tasks and a failure to prepare children for the next step. He reports that progress is being made, however, and that educators are providing for sequential and developmental language growth. They are developing the most basic language skill of listening and speaking using a wide range of methods "direct and vicarious", including story telling, field trips, and tape recordings. The importance of measuring verbal and symbolic ability in accurately diagnosing the deprived individual's potential is also discussed in articles by Dvorak (1964) and Culhane (1965) in the development of the nonverbal General Aptitude Test Battery. This test is intended for use with persons who have no reading or arithmetic skills. According to Anastasi (1964) such "culture fair" tests endeavor to utilize what is common in the experiential backgrounds of different cultural groups. They include many varieties of items, each eliminating one or more parameters on which cultures differ.

Culture fairness must be evaluated in terms of cultural differentials of particular groups. It depends upon the control of relevant cultural parameters. Culture fair tests also differ among themselves in factorial composition and in relative coverage of different intellectual functions. Such a test was tried in the College of the Western Pacific (Guam) and reported in a study by Cooper (1962). Although its reliability was adequate, he found that it was of limited use in predicting academic achievement.

Yourman (1964) notes that the New York City decision to discontinue group intelligence testing has roots in several major social forces relating to (a) resolving defacto school segregation, (b) popular attitudes negative to testing, (c) the turmoil of the Negro social revolution, and (d) growing opinion among educators and psychologists that group intelligence tests do not have high predictive validity in measuring capacity to learn when pupils tested differ significantly in cultural experience from those for whom the tests and norms were developed.

Hughson (1964) on the other hand, supports the retention of the intelligence test on the basis that: (a) some indicator of academic potential in addition to measured academic attainment is necessary, (b) intelligence tests represent the most promising and useful instruments in this area, (c) intelligence tests have proven their worth with average and above average students, and (d) the scores of minority group children on intelligence tests do not prove inferiority, but simply that the environment lacks elements of good education. He suggests that the environment be improved rather than the tests be eliminated.

As our society becomes more and more concerned with manipulation of symbols, verbal destitution makes the individual relatively less competitive. This situation is reflected in intelligence test scores. Culture fair tests seem inappropriate as predictive measures simply because they do not assess proficiency in symbolic manipulation.

Inadequate Motivation and Work Value Orientation

Yuker (1960) reviewed the experiences of Abilities, Incorporated which hires severely impaired workers, and suggested implications for the selection of workers. He reports that motivation and a work value orientation is the key to selection of good workers, and that less emphasis may be placed on experience and aptitude where the applicant is highly motivated. The importance of positive motivation was also stressed by Brophy (1961) in dealing with a college population.

Friedlander (1966), in discussing motivation to work and organizational performance, measured three types of motivation related to work. Using a sample of 1,047 technical personnel, he found that low performers were motivated primarily by the social environment of the job and to a lesser extent by the opportunity of gaining recognition through advancement. With advancing age and tenure, work became more meaningful for the high performers but less meaningful for the low performers, although the importance of the social environment increased for both.

In another motivational study (Green and Zigler, 1962) of normal, retarded-noninstitutionalized, and retarded-institutionalized, the retarded-institutionalized differed significantly from the other two groups. They spent more time on a simple monotonous activity than did the other two groups. This finding was interpreted as evidence in favor of the motivational hypothesis which emphasizes the negative effects of social deprivation.

Irelou and Besner (1965) report that our lower income population feels insecure and comparatively powerless in relation to the rest of American society. From their own helplessness, they have generalized to the belief that most of life is uncontrollable. They are convinced of their own impotence so that while they accept typical American values they are frequently lethargic in trying to attain them. In a separate study (Morse and Weiss, 1955) using a national sample of unemployed men and studying the extent to which working serves noneconomic functions, the authors have reiterated that working does not simply serve as a means of earning a livelihood. It is through the producing role that men tie into society. It seems, therefore, that those who don't have a high work value orientation, or need for achievement, or motivation to work, may also not have such an intense social or interpersonal need.

Hendrick (1943) in an earlier essay, discusses work and the pleasure principle. He concludes that the work principle involves the need of human beings for the pleasure afforded by effective integration of neuromuscular and intellectual functions. This goal is control or alteration of environmental situations through the effective development of the work principle. As such it is evidence of the level of ego function. A somewhat related conclusion was also reached by Carter (1940) 25 years ago, in which he outlined the theory and nature of the development of vocational interests. Vocational interest patterns of young persons become increasingly practical. Where these patterns consist of a series of "bad" patterns, this can lead to personality breakdown.

It would appear that many of the disadvantaged have not assimilated a middle class work value orientation - motivation to work - nor have they committed themselves to a specific occupation or employer. This suggests inadequate acculturation or inadequate personality organization in a possible mutual or reciprocal relationship.

Need for Immediate Gratification

Mischel (1958) tested an observation made by anthropological field techniques regarding personality differences between the East Indian and Negro populations of Trinidad, BWI. Subjects were 53 male and female children aged seven to nine. Primary results indicated significant differences between a preference for immediate smaller reinforcement versus delayed large reinforcement and the (a) presence or absence of the father within the home, and (b) age. He (Mischel, 1961) also explored the relationship between preference for immediate smaller reinforcement as opposed to delayed larger reinforcement and (a) measure of social responsibility, (b) delinquent behavior, and (c) accuracy in time statements. His data from 206 Trinidad Negro children aged 12 through 14 indicates (a) that delinquent children showed greater preference for immediate smaller reinforcement, and (b) a tendency for children who preferred immediate smaller reinforcement to show social responsibility scores.

Weiner and Murray (1963) investigated two factors which might be significant in cultural deprivation: (a) a difference in willingness to preserve goals while encountering obstacles, and (b) a difference between the reality and the ideal of these goals. They contend that lower socio-economic parents have high levels of aspiration for their children's education; however, the differences lie in the attitudes that the parents, and often that the children have, concerning the attainment of these education goals.

The ability and willingness to defer immediate short term gratification for the sake of long term goals has been defined as a measure of self-discipline or "ego strength". Its absence expresses an important correlative factor in "disadvantage".

Treatment: Work Therapy

Krasner (1963) discusses a new approach to "psychotherapy". This includes key concepts of social reinforcement and behavior control. Studies were reviewed and the point made that behavior is systematically modifiable and amenable to control by external sources. Franks (1965) also discusses the origins, advantages, methodology and status of behavior therapy. He suggests, furthermore, that behavior therapy is more appropriate to the training and practice of the clinical psychologist than are the psychodynamic and other treatment methods of the psychiatrist.

Thompson (1965) reports on the use of selective verbal reinforcement to successfully manipulate attitudes toward work of neurophychiatric patients referred for vocational counseling. And Krumboltz (1966) indicates that the goals of "counseling" should be stated in terms of specific behavior changes. These goals would then result in a clearer anticipation of what such behavior modification can accomplish, a better integration of counseling psychology with the main stream of psychological theory and research, a facilitation of the search for new and more effective techniques for helping clients, and the use of different criteria for assessing the outcomes of counseling with different clients. Olsen (1965) goes one step further and discusses and defines employment persuasion as vocational counseling which meets manpower needs.

Although there is little in the literature to suggest the use of operant conditioning as a technique to modify the behavior of the disadvantaged, work adjustment training is considered an effective approach with a non-verbal minimally motivated population.

Hethridge (1963) states that "work purely for the sake of doing something constructive is highly gratifying and therapeutic whether the patient be physically or mentally disabled". A program which produces self-gratification and self-respect becomes of great import in the rehabilitation of the person. Vocational development programs for welfare recipients are discussed by Wolcott (1962), and Shore and Massimo (1965) discuss employment as a therapeutic tool with delinquent adolescent boys.

Super (1951) suggests that when the individual chooses an occupation he is in effect choosing a means of implementing his self-concept. Gellman (1961) discusses the functioning of a vocational adjustment shop. It is considered a situational technique designed to deal with unemployability and vocational development.

These programs are pertinent to consider for use in attempting to rehabilitate non-productive, otherwise unplaceable, individuals.

Treatment: Training and Placement

Skill training apprears to be an important rehabilitation modality with the disadvantaged. Perhaps this is because it may afford the individual a potential role playing opportunity as well as a specific skill. Martz and Huyck (1963) discuss the current viewpoints toward relief as well as the federal role in community and work training programs. They suggest that training programs should help those who have employment potential to acquire skills needed in today's competitive labor market.

Jurgevich (1966) conducted research on 69 institutionalized deliquent girls. He used the MMPI and concluded that institutional training was found to have a significant positive influence upon the personality improvement of these delinquents.

Christmas (1966) discusses a program of mental health services which were therapeutically useful to disadvantaged persons. She concludes that group training methods can lead to increased learning, greater self-awareness, and improved functioning. She also recommends that the major responsibility for training should be vested in someone with a positive and accepting attitude, and continuous work exposure in the community and institution should be the main training focus.

The U. S. Employment Service has largely taken on the task of skill training, and basic literacy training for the disadvantaged. These programs are discussed generally by Rindler (1964) and Levine (1965), and Evers and Reeves (1965). Youth opportunity center training is discussed by Evans (1965), training conducted under programs of the Manpower Development and Training Act is discussed by Mali (1963), Job Corps training is discussed by Singletary (1965) and Chiles (1965) and Neighborhood Youth Corps training is discussed by Howard (1965)

A major prototype training experiment - the Norfolk State College Experiment - is reported in four documents (U.S. Office of Education, 1964; U. S. Department of Labor, 1965; Brazziel, 1965; and Brooks, 1964). This Norfolk training project describes an experiment utilizing 200 unemployed, unskilled adults in two experimental and two control groups. The main experimental group was given training in basic education plus technical training. The second experimental group was given technical training only for a period of 52 weeks. Of the 100 men beginning training, 90 received diplomas and all 90 were employed. At the end of the six months, 66 were employed in their fields and 12 in related fields, and 12 in nonrelated fields. Greater gains were suggested through the addition of basic education since attempts at upgrading adult skill levels were believed to have suffered from a lack of basic adult literacy.

The Department of Labor and specifically, the U. S. Employment Service, has extensively utilized placement as an approach as reported in the MDT, YOC, NYC, and Job Corps Programs. A number of writers (Warge, 1965; Hosch, 1965; Robinson, 1965; St. John, 1965 and Segars, 1965) have reported on the effective use of this approach to rehabilitation of the disadvantaged.

Treatment: Individual Counseling

Individual counseling as we know it is based on certain assumptions; i.e. that the individual has minimum verbal skills; that he has the capacity to gain insight through verbal or symbolic means; that he will act responsibly in accordance with the insights gained; and that he will seek counseling as a result of personal anxiety over some situation.

Several attempts have been made to redefine the function of counseling in terms of aiding the disadvantaged client (Calia, 1966, McGough and Frosh, 1965, Diller, 1959, Phillips, 1959). It would appear that these attempts are aimed at aiding the client whether or not he is personally involved rather than having him assume responsibility for the outcome of the process.

Calia states that the counseling process as currently conceived is highly incongruous with the life style of the poor. The introspective and verbal demands of the dyadic encounter the phenonemon of assumed similarity and the necessity for self-referral all serve to vitiate the counselor's effectiveness. He suggests that natural therapeutic conditions in the home, school, work and play provide the counselor with promising alternatives. He also discusses the danger of idealizing the counselor's middle class values and ignoring the potentialities of the values of the culturally deprived. McGough and Frosh, working from an Employment Service setting, also report on a number of alternatives to fact-to-face counseling with the disadvantaged.

Diller redefines the task in terms of total psychosocial services. These services help clients in four basic ways: (a) they provide information about social and vocational problems, (b) they provide counseling, (c) they afford psychotherapy of a conflict uncovering type and (d) they provide psychotherapy of a supportive nature. These services are described in terms of stimulus roles provided by the worker, personality variables congruent with these roles, and the values found in a rehabilitation center. Phillips (1959) also defines counseling as a special service in public assistance and emphasizes the case study aspects of this service.

These approaches to the problem are not borne out by research reported by Ornstein (1965) where he indicates that the disadvantaged child cannot be trained or educated unless he is willing to learn. To persuade him he feels that educators must pay more attention to changing the sordid image he has of himself. This is in line with Tyler's (1958) observation that counseling is only one kind of psychological helping activity, the kind that is limited to concentrating on the growth of a clear sense of ego identity and the willingness of the individual to make choices and commitments in accordance with it.

Washburn (1963) developed a scale of items representing self-concepts from the personality theories of Freud, Sarbin, Erikson, Horney, and Fromm. The test was given to 233 subjects. Results were interpreted as indicating that neurasthenics, psychasthenics, and delinquents can be differentiated on the basis of self-concepts reported, presumably reflecting underlying differences in their dynamics of adjustment. Along these lines, Hines (1964) interprets some of the forces affecting the behavior of culturally deprived groups. His conclusion is that they react to and manifest the social expectations and definitions of the larger society, but generally use different modes of defense and adjustment than the middle class.

On the negative side, Knopka and Wallinga (1964) distinguish between the concept of immunity to stress and the concept of resistence to stress. They suggest that the disadvantaged are frequently immune as a result of a long series of early brutal experiences. Such individuals are especially difficult to reach in treatment. The traditional approach of counseling emphasizing felt personal anxiety is considered ineffective. In short, clients must experience health before they can experience pain. Counseling is not considered the most effective instrument of behavior change with the disadvantaged according to Goodan (1965). He suggests that significant changes in behavior are products of significant changes in total life experiences.

Traditional individual counseling as a treatment approach appears to be relatively inefficient for disadvantged clients. Their very problems - lack of ego strength, dependency, inadequate sense of self, unwillingness to make choices and accept concommitant responsibility - inhibit them from seeing the real need for, or being ready, willing or able to change. Neither is the counseling relationship considered a meaningful part of the individual's total life experience in most instances.

Treatment: Group Counseling and Therapy

Christmas and Davis (1965) working in a Harlem hospital, suggest that direct services can be provided to patients and families by using group methods and community consultation. They point out features of group approaches that are particularly appropriate for a deprived population and stress the use of cooperative and democratic approaches rather than authoritatian measures. This group approach is also reported by McDaniel (1963) in working with 52 vocational rehabilitation clients. A significantly greater number of individuals receiving group psychotherapy had obtained and remained in employment than had controls. In another study by Berlin and Bassin (1963), offenders newly placed on probation were provided group therapy. They concluded that the most important function of the group therapist is to provide an atmosphere for exploration and communication of feelings.

Kemp (1963) investigated certain hypotheses: (a) that responses in group guidance will be superior to those in group counseling; (b) that responses in group counseling of the open-minded will be superior to those of the closed-minded. Using an N of 90, his results provide significant support for each hypothesis suggesting that some individuals can benefit more than others by group counseling. Zimbalist (1964) describes a three year pilot project in New York designed to bring mental health services to a low income multiproblem family. He used group techniques for problem identification and resolution in the home, involving the total family setting. He used case histories and other findings to support his conclusion that positive results were obtained. Morelli

(1964) also reports favorably on the experimental use of group counseling in an Employment Service setting.

Group counseling and group therapy appears to be useful in working with selected disadvantaged clients, particularly those with problems of an interpersonal nature. This is presumably due to: (a) more support being provided by group members, (b) less personal threat resulting from group pressures rather than in a fact-to-face confrontation, and (c) possible control and change of the total environment.

Treatment: Psychodrama

Moreno (1962) believes that role playing must take place prior to the emergence of the self. Roles do not emerge from the self but the self emerges from experienced roles. Psychosomatic roles help the infant experience "body", psychodramatic roles help him experience "psyche", and social roles help produce what we call "society". Body, psyche, and society are intermediary parts of the entire self. Fein (1962) reports that in complex disciplinary problems, sociodrama and psychodrama are valuable educational tools. Through the use of these techniques different feelings, attitudes, and value systems are brought out in the open so that participants can get a clear view of the dynamics which operate behind the actions and reactions of individuals.

Not much literature exists on the use of this technique with the disadvantaged, probably due to a lack of qualified psychodramatists. It does, however, appear to have value in treatment and rehabilitation.

Treatment: Multiple and Total Approaches

Craft (1962) differentiates between social and vocational rehabilitation. He defines social rehabilitation as comprised of every other method that will help a person toward greater self-care and self-help as well as self-support, where vocations are not reasonable goals. A paper by Wiltse (1963) explores some of the implications of life on the ADC program. He concludes that financial deprivation is social deprivation, and the ADC families are typically multi-problem.

Reichler, et al., (1966) focus on the fragmentation of case work and lack of coordination of the helping agencies. The authors argue that what is needed is a radical reorganization of the patterns of providing psychosocial care to the handicapped and disadvantaged. Wolfbein (1964) discusses the role of combined counseling and training in the war on unemployment and poverty, and Arroyo (1965) suggests the use of a multiple approach in upgrading youth to jobs. Youth must be initially involved and provided individual and group counseling, supervised work experience, vocational counseling, and placement, and finally follow-up. Gavales (1966) reports on the positive effects of combined counseling and vocational training for personal adjustment in the Houston Multi-Occupational Project. And finally, Walker (1965) discusses difficulties encountered in rehabilitation of the hardcore unemployed as part of a special project conducted by the Minneapolis Rehabilitation Center.

Conclusion

This author attempted to discuss different approaches to identifying the "disadvantaged", to describe and discuss the origins of their status, and to suggest possible treatment modalities as described in the professional literature.

It would seem that, based on a review of the literature, the disadvantaged suffer from psychological deprivation which leaves them with the goals of the greater society, but deprives them of the means whereby these goals can be obtained. In addition, the need for immediate gratification rather than the deferral of immediate needs for the sake of long term goals appears to be correlative factor. The lack of learning how to manipulate symbols, such as words, serves as a serious deterrent to controlling behavior both through the mediational effects of language or behavior as well as language as a vehicle for making the individual more socially and emotionally competitive. Another correlative feature is the reported inadequate motivation, reduced need for achievement, and weak work value orientation of this group. Psychologically the "disadvantaged" appear to suffer from limited ego strength, character disorders, emotional instability, and emotional and social immaturity.

In terms of treatment, individual counseling was found to be of limited value because the assumptions underlying the process are not met in this group. Group counseling may be of more value for certain individuals primarily those with problems of an interpersonal nature. It is concluded that work adjustment training, skill training, and placement show the most promise with this group of individuals.

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CULTURAL METHODS AND ACTIVITIES NEEDED TO OVERCOME INADEQUACIES OF CHILDREN WHO ARE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT

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CULTURAL METHODS AND ACTIVITIES NEEDED TO OVERCOME INADEQUACIES OF CHILDREN WHO ARE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT

Ruth M. Laws

A crucial challenge of education today is the development of relevant teaching materials, activities and methods for children who are culturally different. First of all we must realize that being culturally different does not mean being devoid of culture. Children of migrant families, poor Negro families, Mexican families, uneducated families, bookless families and houseless families, all come to us with something - their own culture, their own values, their own attitudes, their own frustrations, their own hopes or lack of hope. The purpose of this paper is to discuss a variety of promising methods and activities for overcoming inadequacies of children who are culturally different.

Basic to making education relevant is the understanding of the different culture with its accompanying action patterns, aspirations and values. A quick enumeration of the dominant characteristics in the culture of lower working class families helps to give direction to discussion:

1. Often they place low value on early intellectual attainment.

2. The ability to verbalize is often retarded because of the language of the sub-cultural group.

3. Growing up in blighted areas and crowded living conditions, their organic life is expressed more directly.

4. Physical aggression is regarded as normal self protection.

5. Parents often maintain control through child beating as the normal procedure for disciplining children.

6. The child grows up faster. He is not protected from family crises. He lives fast and carries adult responsibilities early.

7. The lower working class child has his share of fear and worry. His family is often struck by disease, separation, desertion. Chronic poverty keeps him in fear of eviction. But his family teaches him not to be afraid of a fight, to strike back, not to be afraid of the police or the teacher or injury or even death.

8. The culture of the working class differs from that of middle class groups in its concept of manliness and womanliness. The boy will be more male, coarser, more aggressive physically, more open sexually than the middle class boy. The girl will be bolder, more outspoken sexually than the girl trained in a

middle class family. Thus by the age of 13 or 14 the adolescent in low status communities has learned a deep cultural motivation which is different from that of most teachers and regarded by them as unacceptable.

9. Many of the culturally different children have shattered dignity and frightened selves. Their hostility is deep seated.

10. They have so long been economically deprived that they are emotionally unprepared to plan ahead. They look for the here and now. The events that mark their lives are not planned. They just happen.

11. Cooperation and group solidarity are prime virtues of the culturally different youth in contrast with individual achievement in the middle class. A characteristic of lower class social organization is reciprocity, the tacit understanding that assistance given to one's friends is repaid in reciprocal favors when one is, in turn, in need.

12. Culturally different parents have the same desires for their children that middle class families have. However, two significant factors prevent their success in achieving these desires: (a) a difference in willingness to preserve goals while encountering obstacles, and (b) the difference between the reality and the ideal of these goals.

What principles are useful to guide teachers as they work with children who are academically retarded because they are culturally different? Davis[1] states the following, "The first step in helping children change their attitudes toward themselves and toward school work is to change our attitudes towards them". We must have faith in them and they must know it. The teacher will have to initiate the new relationship by trying to understand the student and his stigmatized culture. The teacher must be patient since the processes by which human beings change their behavior are often slow and complex. The major principles involved in the student's learning what the teacher has to teach are the following:

1. All learning is stimulated or hindered by the teachers feeling toward the student. Teacher and student must trust each other.

2. All school learning is influenced by the cultural evaluations which the teacher makes of the student, and which the student makes of the teacher. Often in rejecting the students cultural background the teacher appears to reject the student himself,

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[1] Allison Davis. "Society The School and the Culturally Deprived Student" Improving English Skills of Culturally Deprived Youth. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1956.

in return, and as early as the first grade, the student may reject the teacher and the school.

3. All school learning is influenced by the student's cultural motivation, by the degree of interest and drive with respect to school work, which the student has learned in his family and peer group.

4. All school learning is influenced by the presence or absence of intrinsic motivation in the curriculum itself. Irrelevant rigamarole which bears no relationship to the life interest of children will not create interest in school, nor can the teacher who utilizes such materials relate to the children.

Methods and activities needed to overcome inadequacies include the following:

1. A study of the community from which the children come. The typical teacher knows too little about the values, motives and feelings of the families of the children who are culturally different. Actual home visitation is necessary in order to plan intelligently for teaching. In a home situation where four to six children sleep in one room, where there is poor lighting, no tables and not enough chairs for all to sit, assigned homework is unrealistic. An opportunity exists through visitation to interpret to the parents the role which the school can serve and the teacher's interest in the children. It also offers an opportunity for the teacher to assess the degree in which the physical surroundings and the parents attitude toward education will facilitate or hamper the learning process.

   The importance of home visitation in helping the migrant child can scarely be over -emphasized. So different is the home life of these children from that of the average teacher that serious pre-planning needs to be done. The visit needs to be natural, informal and easy. The teacher should be aware of the fact that a "dressed up" look may cause the migrant family to be embarrassed by contrast and to withdraw. Rapport is often easily established by expressing interest in the children. The home visit should not take on the image of an inspection or an investigation.

   The teacher who has the good fortune to make the first visit to recruit children for a summer school has a very natural situation. She is visiting to welcome the family to the community and to inform them of the educational program. During this visit she will have registration cards on which she will very naturally be able to record a considerable amount of basic data about the family. The ability of the teacher to place the family at ease and be at ease is the keynote to the successful home visit. The teacher who is a good listener and observer may gather a considerable amount of helpful information. It may be wise to record much of the information immediately after the visit in order to keep it informal. The Florida Department of Education together with the Florida Universities have developed a guide for home visitation.[2]

a. Plan for the visit ahead of time.

b. Note the real life problems of the families and the emotional climate of the home.

c. Assess the methods the parents use to manage the child.

d. How does the family live and operate in their way of life?

  (1) Do both parents work
  (2) Is the child left on his own
  (3) Is the child responsible for the care of other children
  (4) Does the child have regular hours
  (5) What do family members do together for fun and recreation

e. What events in the life history of the child, both past and present, have had an adverse effect upon him? How have the parents handled the child in relation to these events?

f. What future goals and plans do the parents have for the child? Do their aspirations seem to be in time with the reality of their lives?

Sutton[3] emphasizes the importance of careful preparation for establishing rapport before teaching is begun, since a positive feeling of parents and children about school makes a great difference in the effectiveness of the school in meeting their needs. She reports a variety of ways that have been found successful:

a. Preparing resident children for the coming of migrant children.

b. Welcoming migrant children into the schools.

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[2] Florida State University. State Department of Education and University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida. Working with Migrant Children in our Schools, 1966.

[3] Elizabeth Sutton. Knowing and Teaching The Migrant Child. National Education Association, 1960.

c. Devoting special time to migrant children.

d. Encouraging the sharing of travel experiences.

e. Providing for participation in special school programs and projects.

f. Recognizing migrant children when they withdraw from school.

g. Making friendly contacts with parents.

Another means of studying the community is through informal talks with children in which they express their concerns, their fears, their joys and sorrows. Anecdotal records would be helpful in determining the degree of change in children. Listening to children's conversation also gives the teacher some insight into their concerns and behavior. Autobiographies of children and experience stories dictated as a part of classwork helps to enlighten the teacher while serving as a means of developing communication skills. Open-ended themes on such subjects as, "My Greatest Wish", "What I Want Most", reveal the concerns of children.

2. A realistic curriculum. A whole new approach to curriculum is needed which focuses on the life interest of these children and the characteristics which we know their life situation has caused them to develop. We have summed up these characteristics. We know they have low self-esteem. They have had little success. They feel rejected. They have had more punishments than rewards. What kinds of educational experiences will reverse these feelings, build their self-esteem, provide them with success, provide meaningful rewards and make them feel wanted?

Let us first look at methods. The first step in developing self-esteem is the attitude and faith of the teacher in the child's ability to learn. The teacher needs first of all to make clear her purpose, "I am here to show you that you can learn to read and write or learn to add".

Wolfe[4] asks, can we convince each student in this class that he can learn to read and write well, notwithstanding any genetic lack of intelligence? We are gradually seeing that the release of energy in the adolescent toward a specific academic goal is a far greater factor in his success than any genetic endowment.

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[4] Don M. Wolfe. "A Realistic Writing Program for Culturally Diverse Youth". Improving English Skills of Culturally Diverse Youth. Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare Bulletin, No. 5 OE 30012, 1964.

---The experience in New York City of Junior High School 43, alone shows how explosive is our power to help children move on to college. --- When a boy or a girl in a mixed classroom sees that he has a chance, sees that the teacher believes in him, sees that the teacher really means it when he says, "I'm here to prove to you that you can write", something happens to that boy. ---When a teacher holds up his paper before the class, even a single sentence, as an achievement that even a college teacher would be proud of,something happens to him. When the teacher spends time in writing helpful comments on his paper, when she takes him on a field trip, and helps to interpret it, a release of creative energy begins which we have tended to believe could come only from the inherently gifted.

The curriculum will further help to build self-esteem for children if its materials are related to their life experiences and show their occupation in a constructive light. Materials which picture farm life, farm products and the family traveling are closely related to the experiences of the migrant child. Education in this setting becomes real.

Abstract problems are very difficult for culturally different children. Davis[5] sites an example of a teacher working with a group of first grade slum children in which there was little comprehension of abstract problems in arithmetic. Knowing that these children deal more effectively with three dimensional concrete problems, she asked them to stand in groups of four or five or six. For each group she then said, "Now (two or three or four or more) of you go over and play with another group. How many are left in this first group? How many are now in the second group?"

These disadvantaged first grade children played out the arithmetic problems excitedly and learned the correct remainders and sums rapidly.

The use of relia in teaching promotes success in working with these children. Learning to count with ears of corn, string beans or potatoes gives life to teaching migrant children. Written problems related to their farm experiences are more interesting.

Hazzard[6] has demonstrated the significant improvement in problem solving by pupils of low cultural status when they are offered concrete rewards such as soft drinks, candy or movie tickets using data gathered on 516 pupils by Eells and Davis.

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[5] Allison Davis. "Cultural Factors In Remediation". Educational Horizons. Summer, 1965. Vol. XLIII, No. 4, p 231-251.

[6] Ernest A. Hazzard. "Social Status and Intelligence: an Experimental Study," Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1954, 49, 141-186 (secondary source)

Davis[7] reports on several second grade children, including one nine year old boy, who could not count beyond two or three. On the day before Valentines Day the teacher brought candy hearts to school and told the children they could have as many candy hearts as they could count. The nine year old boy thereupon counted fourteen candy hearts.

The foregoing examples show the effectiveness of rewards built into the methods of teaching children who are culturally different and respond to quick results and to physically acting out the answers rather than dealing with all abstract problems.

Materials which recognize the ethnic background of the learner, likewise build self-respect and stimulate learning. A seventh grade class of Negro students, aged twelve to fifteen years, from poor families, will find no interest in reading about the Wives of Henry the VIII or about the story of a Swedish girl who was in tears because her hair was straight and could not take a curl. Particularly is this true, if they are boys who have no interest in girls' hair dressing problems neither will it interest Negro girls who have been taught by this society to want straight hair like the television stars and to depreciate their own curly hair.

Such reading material is loaded with emotional dynamite and is guaranteed to discourage reading. Substitute cowboy stories, civil rights stories, love stories for the girls or sports for the boys and watch the interest grow. Or better still tape record the dictated experience stories, travels, work and play of the boys and girls. Type them up in large print and let them learn to read by reading their own language at their own language level. Give them an opportunity to practice and improve on their written and oral expression through a study of materials exciting to them. Give them a book or a story that hits them where they live, and observe them grow in reading.

Research at the Institute for Developmental Studies reports that a variety of devices were employed to stimulate lower class children of first and fifth grade age levels. In order to encourage them to verbalize their experience,children were given a toy clown whose nose lighted up to show his happiness when they talked. Role playing experiences were provided for these children to initiate talking about what they had seen. Riessman,[8] indicates that lower class children are unexpectedly verbal in these spontaneous, and action-oriented situations. Their response also helped to give considerable insight into the emotional concerns of children.

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[7] Allison Davis. Op. Cit.

[8] Frank Riessman. The Culturally Deprived Child. New York. Harper, 1962

No doubt the most sustained research on the effect of relating the content of children's reading to their environmental background was that conducted in rural schools under the auspices of the University of Kentucky. This research reported in the University's Bureau of School Service Bulletin, March 1942, showed that the specially prepared reading materials, dealing with health and nutrition, apparently affected significant improvements not only in community living standards, but also in reading skills in the experimental schools.

Research related to the culturally different suggests the following overall goals for education of the culturally different child.[9]

a. There must be increasing emphasis on the higher mental processes of problem-solving rather than the existing stress on information learning. Only as individuals develop skill in the more complex types of thinking will they be able to cope with the many new problems they must face in their educational and post-educational careers in a rapidly changing society.

b. There must be increasing emphasis on the basic ideas, structure, and methods of inquiry of each subject field rather than on the minutiae of the subject matter. Individuals must be able to cope with the rapidly expanding and changing body of knowledge in each field and they must be able to find the ways in which the subject fields contribute ideas and tools of thinking necessary for the larger world outside the classroom.

c. More stress must be placed on "learning to learn" than has previously been true. Each person is likely to have to relearn his own occupation a number of times during his career. Furthermore, learning must continue throughout life, if the individual is to cope with the changing nature of the society, the many new demands on him, and his own possibilities for self-actualization and fulfillment.

d. Increasing stress must be placed on those aspects of interests, attitudes, and personality which will promote the further growth of the individual, enable him to find satisfaction in the things he does, and help him to find meaning and fulfillment in his life. The effects of automation, the shorter work week, urban living, and the fast pace of change on the national as well as international scene require individual character development which will enable each person to live with himself and with others under conditions very different from those which have prevailed.

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[9] Benjamin Bloom, Allison Davis and Robert Hess, Compensatory Education For Cultural Deprivation. New York. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

Research directly and tangentially relevant to teaching skills of communication to culturally different children provides a basis for the following tentative recommendations according to Smiley.[10]

a. Since these children are in certain specific ways deprived, their total educational program and especially their programs in English must first of all provide special compensations. They need more of many things, such as those suggested below.

b. Their school and teachers need to help extend the world of these children with more varied experiences than their circumscribed lives afford. Field trips, which should include factories, terminals, new neighborhoods, as well as museums, concerts, and theatres, will provide some of the raw material for language arts activities.

c. They need much more practice in the many phases of language readiness that teachers take for granted among middle-class children. Here the possibilities of language laboratories and intensive practice of language patterns should be explored.

d. These children need additional practice at pre-first-grade levels or through supplementary instruction accompanying regular school work. Research on the relative merits of these two administrative arrangements is needed. Perhaps, because of the rapidly cumulative effect of initial language limitations, supplementary help should be given before these children have fallen behind grade level.

e. Perhaps the most important administrative help for these children is the provision of more teachers per student.

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[10] Marjorie Smiley. "Research and Its Implications". Improving English Skills For Culturally Different Youth. Office of Education Bulletin - 30012, 1964.

The "class of 20" that has been proposed as a means of assuring each child more supportive adult attention merits trial and evaluation. Experimentation with teacher aides, provided total class size is not too much augmented and intimate interpersonal relationships are not sacrificed, may be another means to this end.

f. The fact that these children may lack positive adult models, both to help them achieve the passage from childhood to manhood and womanhood and to suggest occupational choices to them, suggests that junior and senior high school teachers should provide ample opportunity for talking, writing, and reading about these matters. For these children the contribution of literature as a means of developing self-concepts is especially important.

In addition to changing the curriculum materials it is necessary to develop methods of teaching which will provide an opportunity for all children to enter freely into discussion. Often the teacher is afraid to allow low status students to talk as she is afraid of the subject they may raise or their poor language development. The use of role playing on pertinent problems for the disadvantaged might reveal relevant subject matter for all areas of basic education.

Moreno[11] (1962) believes that role playing must take place prior to the emergence of the self. Roles do not emerge from the self but the self emerges from experienced roles. Psychosomatic roles help the infant experience "body", psychodramtic roles help him experience "psyche", and social roles help to produce what we call "society". Body, psyche and society are intermediary parts of the entire self. Fein[12] (1962) reports that in complex disciplinary problems, socio-drama and psycho-drama are valuable educational tools. Through the use of these techniques different feelings, attitudes and value systems are brought out in the open so that participants can get a clear view.

Not enough literature exists on the use of this technique with the culturally different. However, its action-getting potential and stimulation of expression makes it a valuable technique.

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[11] J. L. Moreno, "Role Theory and the Emergence of the Self". Group Psychother. 1962 15; 114-117

[12] Fein, Leah Gold. "Psychodrama in the Treatment of Disciplinary Problems". Group Psychother. 1962, 15; 147-153.

In reviewing the literature Ehrle[13] reports on seven modalities of behavior modification. These include identification, teaching-learning, counseling, group counseling, operant conditioning, mistical experience, play and work. Five of those offer real possibilities in removing inadequacies of the culturally different.

Identification is common among children. It is the process by which the person takes unto himself the qualities of his hero, whether that person be his father, his teacher or a big league baseball player. The child has a head start who selects the right model.

Teaching-Learning is the process by which the teacher, whether he functions in a classroom setting, a scout meeting, or in an informal manner, such as on-the-job supervision creates a learning situation. The teacher-leader provides rewards and punishments on a selective basis and in so doing attempts to mold behavior. Children who have experienced punishment more often than reward will not be motivated nor respond favorably otherwise as a result of punishment. The teacher will need to change behavior through satisfactions of success which breaks the vicious cycle of failure and poverty.

Individual counseling occurs on a one to one basis. It is oriented to a specific set of problems which have direct effect on one's behavior. These problems include such problems as: "Why do I have to travel so far to work?" "At my age maybe I better work at whatever I can do". In exploring and resolving these emotionally toned issues the student learns to make decisions and to accept responsibility. Counseling is only effective to the extent that the student suffers from some internalized anxiety, has some verbal skills, is ready for help and can profit from the insights he gains so that he modifies his behavior.

Group counseling is particularly helpful where individuals have problems of an inter-personal nature relating to persons of the same sex, the opposite sex or to authority figures, parents, police, the crew leader or where they suffer feelings of alienation from society. This approach to behavior modification is useful because (a) it affords the individual an opportunity to role-play and act out, (b) the individuals realize that others have similar problems (c) peer group support provides a climate where peer group criticism can be accepted. The teacher of the culturally different has a vital role in helping children to learn to live with others.

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[13] Raymond A. Ehrle. "Rehabilitating the Disadvantaged." A Research Paper. University of Maryland.

Operant conditioning prescribes experiences which reinforce alternate behaviors when repeated over and over again desensitize the individual. This method seems non-productive in working with the culturally different as time and interest may not permit it to be self sustaining.

Kinesthetic experience, is knowing by experiencing. It occurs both as play experience and work experience. It is characterized by neuro-muscular kinesthetic activity dealing with concrete objects and things. The individual takes pleasure in his activity. It enables him to be a part of the environment and to exert some control over it. Knowing by experience is often provided as play therapy for children and work experience for youth. In this experience the individual may gain considerable insight as he performs. The work experience may also strengthen the self concept. As it helps the child to feel that he "can do".

3. Early educational experience. Bloom[14] and others document the value and potential of pre-school experience in improving the cultural and educational future for the culturally different child. The following recommendations are significant:

   a. Nursery schools and kindergartens should be organized to provide culturally different children with the conditions for their intellectual and the learning-to learn- stimulation which is found in the most favorable home environments. Such nursery schools and kindergartens should be very different from those commonly used by middle class children.

   b. These nursery schools and kindergartens must systematically provide for the intellectual development of the child. Much learning can take place through concrete objects, (blocks, toys) and dramatic play. Adults must provide a supportive structural environment in which being read to, music and art are enjoyable experiences for children and will serve the following purposes:

      (1) Stimulate the children to perceive aspects of the world about them and learn these aspects by the use of language.

      (2) Develop more extended and accurate language.

      (3) Develop a sense of mastering new aspects of the immediate environment and an enthusiasm for learning.

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[14] Benjamin Bloom, et al. Op Cit.

(4) Develop thinking and reasoning and the ability to make discoveries for oneself.

c. Teachers for this type of nursery school should be trained to do for many children what very good parents can do for a small number of children.

d. Parents must be sufficiently involved in the nursery school and kindergarten to understand its importance for their child and to give support and reinforcement to the tasks of these special schools.

e. Especially in the early years of school, all children must learn under the most positive set of human interactions.

f. Teachers should be chosen because of their ability to help young children and because they can be warm and supportive.

g. Integration will contribute most effectively to better attitudes and relations when there are a variety of ways in which children of both races engage in common activities on a one to one basis.

4. Promising practices in educational organization[15] include the following:

a. Reduction of pupil teacher ratio to provide for more individual attention, special staff assistance, use of indigenous persons as aides, parental involvement and the use of the school social worker in working with families of children.

b. Team teaching offers possibilities in which teachers with differing competencies coordinate their planning and scheduling of classtime so as to provide an opportunity for a varied curriculum experience. In this plan four or five teachers may work for a part of the day with a large group of children at the same grade level and then divide them into small groups for work according to their needs. Several teachers may work together across grade lines and break-up into subject areas with individual assignments to teachers with special know how or creativity in given skills.

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[15] Helen Mackintosh, Lillian Gore and Gertrude Lewis. Educating Disadvantaged Children in the Middle Grades. Washington, U. S. Office of Education. Disadvantaged Children Series No. 3, OE-35068, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

c. The organization of an accessible library for books and educational materials staffed, if possible, by a professional librarian is a necessity. A collection of books, magazines and reading material for children to take home, meets a vital need in stimulating an interest in reading and learning. A camp migrant center where reading material is available during the weekend would do much to keep the days from being long and tedious.

d. Trips and cultural experiences should be a regular part of the educational program. Whenever possible parents should be included in these cultural experiences. The schools have a role to play in developing community contacts with churches and other organizations which would help to improve the climate of acceptance for these families.

Lunch periods should be made a part of the educational programs. Teachers might utilize the lunch period as a social skill learning experience by being seated with the children and take advantage of the opportunity through example and other means to teach sound food habits and social skills of eating.

e. An attempt should be made wherever possible to bring culturally different children together with other groups of children. In the case of classes of migrant children socialization may be arranged through joint cultural activities, recreational activities and mealtime. It must be remembered that children often learn more quickly from their peers than from adults.

f. A well organized program of health services is vitally essential to these children who have been neglected because of their economical deprivation, their parents lack of information about services available to them and because their families are constantly moving.

Each child should be given appropriate and frequent physical examinations by nurses, doctors and dentists to determine special needs with respect to fatigue, disease and dental, visual and hearing problems. If these health services cannot be provided by parents it is the responsibility of the school to provide them.

g. Each child should be provided with an adequate breakfast to help him begin the learning task of the day. Each child should be provided a balanced mid-day meal. If these meals cannot be provided by the home it should be provided by the school or community in such a way that no child is made to feel a sense of shame or distinction.

h. No child should be subject to feelings of inadequacy and shame because of lack of necessary clothing. If these needs cannot be met by parents it is the responsibility of the school and community to provide them.

i. The pre-school period offers great promise for overcoming the effects of deprivation. Therefore early childhood education programs need to be promoted and activated.

j. Coordination is highly essential between sending and receiving states if there is to be a sound program for mobile children. It is imperative that there be some consistency in materials used in program development, in services provided and transfer of records if a meaningful program is to be developed.

k. Parent education needs to be arranged for in some c onsistent manner. Many barriers have to be surmounted in this respect. Many growers do not want to release the families for study in the day. They must harvest their crops and the adults need the money. They are too tired for evening programs.

l. High school age youth often miss out on education because they too work in the fields. Two possible courses could give them a better preparation for the world of work. Combined work-study, or a financial subsidy to continue in school.

5. The teacher is the key in promoting social and cultural mobility. This is a challenge to the master teacher who knows that flexible methodology does not mean poor teaching. It is a call for sensitivity to needs, a call for faith, a call for creativity, a call for patience, a call for a sense of humor, for hard work, and for problem solving, in order to reach and teach the culturally different child.

Druding[16] describes the teacher to serve in schools in culturally different areas:

a. A teacher dedicated as a clergyman, selfless as a family doctor, sensitive as an artist, skillful as a master craftsman, ready as a good parent to understand, to sacrifice, to serve, to support and to forgive.

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[16] Aleda E. Druding. "Selection and Preparation of Teachers to Serve in Schools in Culturally Different Areas". Improving English Skills of Culturally Different Youth. Bulletin No. 5, 1964, OE-30012, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

b. A teacher committed to the faith that while no child is exactly like another, for each the level of achievement can be raised, aspirations stirred, potential talents discovered and developed.

c. A teacher bound in conscience to help each child find his own worth, his own dignity.

d. A teacher who believes that the potential of children with limited background far exceeds their performance.

e. The general goals she sets are the simple goals of all good teachers.

f. To raise the achievement level of each child.

g. To raise his aspirational level.

h. To enrich his cultural background.

i. To find and develop potential talent.

j. To involve parents and community.

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DEVELOPING COUNSELING AND PLACEMENT SERVICES FOR PSYCHOLOGICALLY DISADVANTAGED YOUTH IN THE CONTEXT OF AN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Raymond A. Ehrle

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Developing Counseling and Placement Services for Psychologically Disadvantaged Youth in the Context of an Educational System

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This report might run the risk of being labeled "theory" in an area which has long prided itself on practicality. Others might see what I am saying as simple, common sense - but even common sense often times needs to be made explicit. And still others may perceive this report as an exercise in semantics. In a sense it is all these things, for terms must be defined for communication to occur and constructs must be developed for understanding.

This paper will be concerned with a systems approach to identifying and briefly describing seven major modalities of behavior modification. The modalities can best be categorized into two major systems - one system is based on identification, reward and punishment, internalization of behavior controls, and acceptance of responsibility for choices made. The other general system is based on action or knowing-by experiencing. Each general approach is based on different assumptions, has different consequences for the educational system, and leads to different results for the individual.

I will attempt to discuss the role of the family in modifying the behavior of the middle class child and in teaching him how to effectively use one primarily verbal system of learning. Selected characteristics of psychologically deprived and disadvantaged youth will be described in an effort to show that the pre-conditions for learning this verbal system - characterized by a high degree of symbol manifestation and so-called "middle class" behavior - is not being met for many youth. An effort will then be made to suggest that the alternative action approach of "work" instead of "words" is effective not only in influencing immediate behaviors but in long-range consequences for personality integration and permanent behavior change on the part of selected individuals. In short, my thesis is that it is highly possible that a structured work approach, including vocational evaluation using work sample techniques, vocational-industrial education, job tryout, and selective placement may be more effective with disadvantaged urban youth than a verbal counseling approach. Needless to say, considerable research needs to be done in this area. If this hypothesis were confirmed it would have significant implications for the vocational education and counseling professions and would open up new possibilities in the vocational evaluation, selective placement, and sheltered workshop specialties.

Finally, I am suggesting that the key to providing future education oriented toward vocational placement is contingent upon the development of a meaningful system of differential individual diagnosis keyed to behavior change modalities. Depending upon what the individual is diagnosed as requiring, the appropriate mix of educational approaches may be provided.

Seven Modalities of Behavior Modification

In reviewing the literature, it appears that there are seven major methods of behavior modification. These include indentification, teaching-learning, counseling, group counseling, operant conditioning, mystical experience and play and work.

Identification is very common among children. It is the process whereby the person introjects the qualities of his hero into himself, whether that person be his father, teacher, big league baseball player, or even his counselor, in an effort to be like his hero.

Teaching-Learning is the process whereby the teacher, whether he functions in a formal classroom, scout meeting, or in an informal manner, such as, an on-the-job supervisor or street gang leader, creates a learning situation. The teacher, leader, supervisor, and parent provides both reward and punishment on a selective basis andthereby molds behavior. That which is "good" behavior is rewarded and reinforced, and that which is "bad" behavior is punished. Hence, learning occurs and behavior is modified.

Dyadic counseling occurs on a one-to-one basis between a counselor and student or client. It is oriented toward the resolution of a specific set of problems which have direct effect on his behavior. This set of problems include those of personal identity, e.g. "Who am I now that I am unemployed?" In addition, counseling is oriented toward clarifying feelings ("How can I both admire and hate my supervisor at the same time?"), testing hypotheses ("Maybe my real problem is lack of education instead of my physical condition."), establishing realistic goals ("At my age maybe I better take the job."), methods and costs in reaching these goals ("I'm not really happy that I have to take a bus to the other side of town, but I will do it.") as part of the decision making process. In exploring and resolving these often emotionally toned issues, the student learns to make decisions and to accept responsibility, thereby decreasing dependency. Counseling, however, is only effective to the extent that the client suffers from some internalized anxiety, has some verbal skills, and can profit from the insights he gains so that he becomes responsible for modifying his behavior.

Group Counseling is particularly effective where individual clients have problems of an interpersonal nature, e.g. relating to persons of the same sex or opposite sex, relating to authority figures (parents, police, supervisors, etc.), or where they suffer feelings of alienation from themselves and society. This approach to behavior modification is effective with some persons because (a) it affords the individual a limited opportunity to role play or act out, (b) the individual realizes the others have similar or even worse problems than he, and (c) peer group emotional support provides a climate where peer group criticism can be more easily tolerated and accepted. (Group counseling is not to be confused with group guidance which is essentially an approach to getting numbers of persons together to provide them information, to educate them and so forth.)

Operant Conditioning has come to the forefront in recent years as

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Finally, I am suggesting that the key to providing future education oriented toward vocational placement is contingent upon the development of a meaningful system of differential individual diagnosis keyed to behavior change modalities. Depending upon what the individual is diagnosed as requiring, the appropriate mix of educational approaches may be provided.

a means of changing specific behaviors such as phobias. The operant conditioner uses verbal techniques to effect specific behavioral outcomes. He prescribes experiences which reinforce alternate behaviors or experiences which are repeated over and over again, thus desensitizing the client. Recent research suggests that long term behavior modification resulting from this method persists only if concurrent insight oriented counseling is provided.

Mystical Experience has been a primary method of behavior change for thousands of years. It can occur as a religious experience, revelations or insights, symbolic rebirths, and so forth, or as a result of stress or sensory deprivation, hallucinations, or the interpretation of harrowing experiences, as in the form of drugs or chemicals. In very modern times these might take the form of "consciousness expanding" psychodelics through which one pierces the full mystery of the universe. In this sense, the use of marijuana and LSD can be seen not only as an escape, but as an effort to gain insight through a short-cut experience.

Kinesthetic Experience is another way of knowing by experiencing. It occurs as play in children and as work in adults. It is characterized by neuromuscular kinesthetic activity dealing with concrete objects and things. The individual takes pleasure in his activity no matter how primitive it may be. It enables him to be part of the environment and to exert some control over it. Hendrick (1943) suggests that the work principle which is harnessed to productive activity results from the need of human beings for the pleasure afforded by effective integration of neuromuscular and intellectual functions.

Knowing by experiencing techniques are frequently provided as play therapy for children, on-the-job training for youth, industrial therapy for mental hospital patients and sheltered workshop employment for seriously handicapped persons or the aged. During this experience, the individual may gain considerable insight of a "knowing" but not necessarily verbal nature. In short, he "knows" and can even communicate his knowledge non-verbally (through changed behaviors) but infrequently has the ability to verbally communicate his knowledge.

In reviewing these seven modalities of behavior change, it is apparent that they can be grouped into either primarily verbal methods or primarily action methods. Teaching-learning, dyadic counseling and group counseling are primarily verbal methods where the individual (child, student, client) assumes responsibility for the outcomes. In identification, mystical experience, and kinesthetic experience the approach is experiential; the individual may or may not be able to verbalize outcomes and may or may not assume responsibility for such outcomes. Operant conditioning relies on a verbal approach to behavior change in which the operant conditioner assumes responsibility for the outcomes.

The Middle Class Family as Instruments of Behavior Change

One hundred years ago the traditional family usually consisted of two parents - a father and a mother. The father played the role of teacher and imposed social learning demands on the young child, not in a guilt-ridden or retributive or punitive fashion and not directed toward meaningless tasks, but because it was important that the child learn to take his place in the world of men one day. In that sense, the father served as a goad and frustrator of the child's wishes. At the same time, the mother provided the necessary emotional support for the young child as he met obstacles, and as he learned to tolerate failure. In so doing, he learned to profit from his experience which told him that all was not lost if he failed and that he would be given the opportunity to try again.

It is possible to have parents reverse these roles as long as they are consistent, and it is also possible to have one parent play both roles if the parent knows what is expected. In this total process, which can only be described as the practical concern of loving parents, the child learned specific social and vocational skills at the request and command of his father. However, and more importantly, he developed a sense of personal identity as well as a strong measure of ego strength from his bouts with failure as well as success. And he learned to define the world as a challenging place rather than a threatening place.

The three most commonly used approaches to molding such behavior were: identification with the appropriate parent, kinesthetic activity including play and work and the formal teaching-learning process. The child learned to master himself and on a mutual and reciprocal basis also learned to master his environment. Essentially the same methods are employed today by middle class families in raising their children with the exception that individual and group counseling are provided on an "as required" basis.

The psychologist, Frank (1965) states that purposive behavior becomes possible to the extent to which the internal environment gets stabilized, e.g. to the extent to which the child becomes "socialized". He further states, "then the child learns to stabilize the external environment by equalizing and transforming events as patterned by his culture".

One of the major characteristics of being "middle class" is that the individual uses "words" to internalize self-control (and anxiety) and to defer immediate gratification. One of the things that makes man unique is his ability to use language. He learns words for concrete things and learns how to manipulate them easier than the objects they represent. He learns to properly label feeling tones. He learns how to think and solve complex problems by using symbols. He learns to communicate with others in a complex but meaningful fashion.

Language enables him to remember as he "relives" past events, and it enables him to anticipate as he projects future events. Most importantly, it enables him to control his own behavior by serving as a mediational factor between a given situation and an immediate acting out response. In short, language enables him to "communicate" with himself, to anticipate the consequences of possible courses of action, and to modify his behavior accordingly. In this sense, he internalizes self-control. It can be seen that "words" are extremely important in the self-modification of individual behavior.

Yet, the precondition to all effective learning, including language skills, is that the child be loved - loved in the sense that equal doses of social learning demands and emotional support are provided. This feeling must take place in very early childhood according to Erikson for the child to build a sense of basic trust upon which all other learning takes place. Thus, the role of the family is crucial in establishing a loving environment where basic trust is learned and where the world is preceived as a challenging place. It is the place where verbal and symbolic skills can be learned and where the child learns to internalize these as mechanisms to control his impulse to immediately act out in gratifying his needs. It is also the place where the seeds of psychological disadvantage and deprivation are sown.

Psychologically Disadvantaged Youth

As a result of industrial specialization, labor mobility, continued urbanization, working mothers, and lengthened commuting time, the role of the family in educating its young and in modifying and shaping their behavior has drastically declined. Hence, regardless of economic poverty status, race, or ghetto location, an increasing number of youth may be considered psychologically deprived or disadvantaged. Many are in school and some are dropouts; all need the provided counseling and placement services.

Such persons might be characterized as being the products of: (a) inadequate emotional support (Sullivan, Erikson), (b) too many social learning demands without face validity (Erikson), (c) too few social learning demands - the spoiled weaklings, (d) too few social learning demands combined with inadequate emotional support, (e) no true sense of community which is necessary to teaching moral values (Goodman), (f) inadequate man's work to apply themselves to (Goodman), and (g) the required use of abstractions such as words without a sense of relevant real experience.

As a result many of such youth either (a) reject work values and material reward with no positive substitute, or (b) insist on immediate material reward at no personal cost or effort. Not only do such youth lack suitable skills, they also lack internal control over their behavior; they lack a sense of discipline, responsibility and identity. The extent that such controls are not internalized, the individual then must become subject to the whims of the moment and more formal, external controls such as police, courts, and probation officers.

To summarize then, it would seem that our social structure is geared toward growing increasing numbers of unloved urban youth with limited ego strength, uncertain personal identities, and weak internal control over their behavior. They are further disadvantaged by a limited facility in dealing with symbols as well as by few saleable skills to feed into an increasingly complex technology.

Whether you concur with my thesis regarding the origin of the problem or not, it is clear that such a problem exists. Recent federal legislation including the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 confirm the nature of this problem.

The Role of Counseling and Placement

It would seem that counseling might take two forms: The first form would attempt to teach deprived individuals how to use symbolic reasoning to resolve their problems and more importantly to anticipate and control their behavior. This has been the traditional (middle class) approach to behavior modification for urban disadvantaged youth; a verbal corrective including dyadic counseling, group counseling, and teaching-learning. Yet this approach has been largely ineffective since the basic assumptions are that (a) the individual must feel that he is loved for himself and despite himself as precondition to cognitive learning; (b) the individual must have verbal skills; (c) he has internalized controls over his behavior and (d) he is "motivated" and will assume personal responsibility for changing his behavior as a result of insights gained.

Since it is extremely difficult to communicate verbally to the disadvantaged client, it is essential that you accept and understand him as he is now. It is further suggested that this "words" system for modifying behavior be abandoned in favor of an action or "work" approach. In short, as stated in a separate paper:

> ...the incidental, but most important product of work has been overlooked. Work is the most commonly available, socially approved vehicle through which man masters himself and in so doing becomes a person ... for in learning to master his environment, man learns to master himself.

It seems that both tasks must be accomplished as suggested earlier by Frank; it is not clear, however, that mastery of self must occur as indicated in the general psychological literature as a precondition to mastery of the environment and subsequent mastery of self.

If we are in fact concerned with education in behavior modification, it would seem that a system of differential diagnosis is called for. This system would categorize youth in terms of how they might be most effectively assisted through the seven modes of behavior modification or education attained above. As you recall, these were further grouped into a "words" system and a "work" system.

I am suggesting that many students can best be reached through a "work" approach which does not rest upon internalized anxiety, verbal ability, or high motivation. It would seem that vocational educators have a great stake in this approach. The individual student may or may not achieve subsequent verbal insight, but by mastering his environment he will reduce the guilt he feels in terms of being separated from himself, orthers and the community.

If the suggestions in this paper were adopted, the expected results would be (a) the establishment of a meaningful system of differential individual diagnosis for remedial purposes keyed to seven behavior change modalities, (b) increasing use of an action or "work" rather than "words" approach to changing student behavior (c) the development of a whole host of vocationally related occupations including that of vocational evaluator, work adjustment trainers, job developers, and selective placement experts.

GOALS OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION
BASED ON THE NEEDS THEORY

Ruth M. Laws

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Goals of Adult Basic Education Based on the Needs Theory

Ruth M. Laws

As we begin to look for educational objectives, one acceptable procedure is to study the learners themselves. Adult Basic Education is devoted to providing literary education through subject matters geared to the improvement of the level of living. Education is a process of changing the behavior patterns of people. This implies the use of the term "behavior" in a broad sense to include action, thinking and feeling. From this viewpoint, we seek to determine needs. Prescott classifies these needs into three types, (1) physical needs, such as food, clothing, shelter, activity and the like; (2) social needs, that is the need for affection, belonging status or respect from his social group and (3) integrative needs, the need to relate one's self to something larger and beyond himself, that is the need for a philosophy of life. Need in this sense is the gap between what is and what should be. Tyler[1] ascertains there are many other classifications of needs, including a psychological interpretation which suggests that tensions are present in the organism which must be brought into equilibrium for a normal healthy condition of the organism to be maintained. These needs fall generally in the classification of emotional needs.

Current educational theory suggests that when emotional needs are frustrated, individual are apt to find it much more difficult to learn. It seems to follow that teachers must learn to identify some of the emotional needs of adults in their classrooms and to recognize behavior symptomatic of those needs.

Identification of needs and recognition of symptoms are not enough; however, the teacher must learn techniques and develop understandings and skills in meeting needs. The goals of adult education are focused on these tasks.

Attention has been concentrated in several doctoral studies, including a study by Raths and Burrell[2] on eight emotional needs, namely; (1) the need for belonging; (2) the need for achievement; (3) the need for economic security; (4) the need to be free from fear; (5) the need for love and affection; (6) the need to be relatively free from guilt; (7) the need for self-respect; and (8) the need for self-understanding. The problem of the study has been the testing of the theory that as teachers try to meet the emotional needs of children, learning improves as measured on standardized tests, social acceptance increases, extreme forms of aggression decrease, the frequency and intensity of certain physical symtoms seems to decline and school attendance improves. It is assumed that the same results would be achieved with adults. While the evidence of the studies is inconclusive because of inadequate controls, all experiments to date support the conclusion.

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[1] Tyler, Ralph W. Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction. Chicago. Chicago Press, 1950. p.5

[2] Raths, Louis E. and Burrell, Anna P. Do's and Don'ts of the Needs Theory. Bronxville, N.Y.,

Frued, Dollard and others have formulated what is commonly known as the "Frustration-Aggression" Hypothesis. In short, this hypotheses tells us that aggression follows frustration. A considerable body of data has existed for sometime supporting this theory. Building upon the Dollard hypothesis, Raths[3] has gone further to say that there are three additional "gross" manifestations of behavior which indicate frustration. In many instances, when individuals are continually, some of their emotional needs are not met. When an individual frequently tends to withdraw from the group and from contact with others, deep seated emotional needs are unmet. Building on additional research by Dunbar and other researches in the field of psychosomatic medicine, Raths concludes that many symptoms of physical illness have emotional cause.

Further, the theory states that when the eight basic needs are unmet, the individual is frustrated, his needs are thwarted, and he responds by (1) becoming aggressive toward others or toward property; (2) he may vent aggression inwardly; (3) he punishes himself by becoming a victim of psychosomatic disturbances; (4) he may become unusually submissive, shy or meek and tend to withdraw. Frustrated needs may also be revealed in more subtle ways.

An extension of the theory suggests that if we could identify some of the important needs and develop ways of meeting needs, then the behavior, and adults would change.

Now, for an application of the goals of Adult Basic Education to the needs theory. A goal of Adult Basic Education is to develop an understanding or appreciation that each individual possesses worth and has some contribution to make to family success and happiness. There are many ways of teaching this concept in class at any level. Numerous opportunities exist for the teacher and adult to create a climate of acceptance which helps them to belong. The use of the sociogram in forming groups and testing individual acceptance is one technique. Helping adults to be included, helping them to avoid the frustration of being left out is highly essential in meeting this need for belonging. It is a most poignant feeling to be left out. The efforts of the teacher should always be to promote a feeling of belonging.

Another goal of education is to help individuals to develop wholesome personalities. Sound personality development is based on the acceptance of one's self. Inner security is determined by self-acceptance. An individual must feel that he can achieve and have this feeling of accomplishment, and a sense of self-esteem in order to be a person in his own right. Many opportunities exist to help adults experience success or to help prepare them for possible failure as a step toward success. Sincere praise is a means of helping adults feel achievement.

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[3] Raths, Louise E. An Application to Education of the Needs Theory. Bronxville, N.Y., Modern Education Service. 1949. $ .50.

Still another goal of Adult Basic Education is to help individuals manage their economic problems intelligently. In American culture, social status is based rather directly on the income level. Much emotional insecurity of people is based on their feeling of economic need. Any experiences which tends to publicize economic difficulties of individuals or place strain upon them are frustrating. Financial demand that embarrasses them is a further frustration. Disaster may place real strain upon adults. The creative teacher can find ways of helping to meet needs of adults without developing false standards. The aim is a sound one if it is geared toward developing emotional security.

Developing sound mental and physical health is another aim of Adult Basic Education. Some adults have real fear of tests, homework, and of their own personal inadequacies. Methods of instruction and evaluation should be geared to the emoitonal needs of adults. While this method may produce order, it is possibly highly frustrating. It is important that they become able to talk about a problem - to get it out. Teachers can help in this respect. Teachers can help adults to see that common problems of everyday life are to be handled rather than feared. We are seeking to have adults become confident people who can face the future and new experiences with confidence. Fear produces shyness and withdrawing behavior. It should be replaced with intelligent caution.

At all age levels we seem to need a very close relation with some few selected people, and sometimes with one individual. We need to believe in someone and have that individual believe in us. It is important to identify those people who are in need of great support, love, affection and find situations in which some feeling of caring may be shown. This may be attempted through showing interest in the families, in job opportunities and children. All people need a core of their lives that is trusting and confident, and the feeling that someone cares. Every home should offer this climate. It is the goal of Adult Basic Education to strengthen family living to develop home life with this quality - but in the absence of this actuality teachers can help. The tone of voice, a gesture, a kind favor, personal warmth and friendliness can go a long way toward meeting this need.

In meeting the need for freedom from guilt, one of the big things that we can do as teachers is to help adults to see that no one is perfect, that everyone has made mistakes and the mistakes of children and youth are often those that can be expected of one growing up and that we always profit by mistakes. People with deep seated guilt have low evaluation of their worth. It is our job to raise their personal esteem.

In meeting a need for self-respect, teachers can encourage sharing in planning and evaluating class work. This is an experience which is likely to carry over into home life. Learning information in class is very important. Learning to think and plan together, to identify values and to relate to others in a friendly way are additional facets of total living, and are valuable in achieving success in the family. Adults achieve self-respect when they are given freedom to express values, differences and feelings.

The need for self-understanding is very close relationship to personal esteem and family life education. Growing boys and girls have many questions in relation to how they grow and develop, how they rate with their peers, the opposite sex, how to act and so on. Adult Basic Education should help parents in answering these questions. Every person wants to make life meaningful. His questions are important to him. He seeks direction for himself. Our job is to help him on the path so that he may more intelligently decide his own purposes. A first step is the provision of a permissive atmosphere for questions.

As adults work on projects, we can help them examine what they are doing, the importance of it, and what they hope to accomplish.

When adults ask question which are off the subject, they may be written down on the blackboard for later class discussion or an appointment made to talk about them later individually.

We can make an effort to secure more sources of information on the concerns of adults for use in the classroom.

When adults ask naive and unsophisticated questions we might avoid surprise and help them to gain the understanding they deisre.

As teachers, we might do more with projective methods which stimulate adults to raise further questions to which there are no pat answers.

If adults avoid certain large issues, sensitive teachers might raise some of the problems with them, as an example: What explains the different economic levels among families in our country?

As we examine the goals for Adult Basic Education, it is significant to note that the way we work with adults in meeting their emotional needs may make a definite contribution to adult literary as well as personality development and success in the family.

A SUMMARY OF MAJOR POINTS IN DEVELOPING PROGRAMS FOR PERSONS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Office of Education

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education
Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education
Division of Vocational and Technical Education
Washington, D. C. 20202

A Summary of Major Points in Developing Programs for Persons with Special Needs

1. The range of ability, intelligence, creativity and potential among the youth and adults who are academically, socioeconomically or otherwise handicapped can be compared favorably with those who are considered able to take advantage and benefit from the regular vocational programs.

2. Vocational education, in cooperation with all educational disciplines, must make available the supplemental education required to bring these students to the level of achievement required where they can benefit from the occupational course offerings. Concern for and attention to the needs and desires of each student will produce results affecting motivation and achievement.

3. Course offerings must meet the demands of employment opportunities. The variety of occupational curriculums should be wide enough so as to encourage the broadest range of interests and abilities. They should be designed and scheduled for persons of varying educational backgrounds, interests, and aptitudes at locations and within time sequences which are mutually convenient.

4. An atmosphere should be created wherein parents recognize that participation in the career planning of their children is essential to the success of whatever efforts are expended. Creating the climate of acceptance and partnership between the family and the school is extremely difficult, yet most rewarding. The value of Vocational Education, both for their children and for themselves of courses which the vocational educators set up to meet their needs.

5. The total community must be involved in the education and occupational training programs along with the vocational educators. Job opportunities, personnel, equipment, training experiences, advisory committees, support for school funds, social services, medical and welfare personnel, and the student body to be reached make up the total program for making vocational education a service to all people of all ages in all communities.

6. To assure adequate supervision, each State should consider assigning a supervisor of programs for the disadvantaged on a full-time basis as its initial move in programming for the handicapped.

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Characteristics of Persons with Special Needs

Persons with special needs are those who have academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in the regular vocational education program. They include those youth and adults who themselves have one or more of the following characteristics or who live in communities or come from families where there are a preponderance of these characteristics:

low income

poor educational background and preparation

poor health and nutrition

family heads are semi-skilled or unskilled

excessive unemployment

ethnic groups which have been discriminated against or have difficulty in assimilating into the majority culture

isolated from cultural, educational and/or employment opportunities

emotional and psychological problems which are not serious enough to require constant attention or institutionalization

lack motivation for obtaining an education or acquiring a job skill due to a combination of environmental and historical factors

dependent on social services to meet their basic needs

lack the political power or community cohesiveness or articulate and effectuate their needs

have physical disabilities or mental retardation

For purposes of this program activity, those persons are not included among the groups vocational education should be serving who are so physically handicapped or mentally retarded that they require intensive diagnostic and corrective attention from the medical, psychological or psychiatric professions and cannot benefit from occupational education.

PROVISIONS OF THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1963 RELATING TO PERSONS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Section 1 - Declaration of Purpose

> ". . . . to maintain, extend, and improve existing programs of vocational education, to develop new programs of vocational education . . . . so that persons of all ages in all communities of the State . . . . will have ready access to vocational training or retraining which is of high quality, which is realistic in the light of actual or anticipated opportunities for gainful employment, and which is suited to their needs, interests, and ability to benefit from such training."

Section 4(a) - A State may use its allotment in accordance with its approved plan for any or all of the following purposes:

(4) "Vocational education for persons who have academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in the regular vocational education program."

(5) "Construction of area vocational education school facilities." (The construction of area schools will permit a greater variety of specialized courses to be offered in one institution, better facilities and better equipment, and better teachers.)

(6) "Ancillary services and activities to assure quality in all vocational education programs, such as teacher training and supervision, program evaluation, special demonstration and experimental programs, development of instructional materials, and State administration and leadership, including periodic evaluation of State and local vocational educational programs and services in light of information regarding current and projected manpower needs and job opportunities."

Section 4(c) - 10% of the sums appropriated shall be used by the Commissioner to make grants to colleges and universities, other public or nonprofit private agencies and institutions, to State Boards and local educational agencies to pay part of the cost of research and training programs and of experimental, developmental, or pilot programs developed and designed "to meet the special vocational education needs of youth, particularly youths in economically depressed communities who have academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps that pervent them from succeeding in the regular vocational education programs."

Section 13 Work-Study Programs for Vocational Education Students

Funds can be allotted to students between 15 and 21 years of age who are regularly enrolled in vocational high schools to compensate them for work for public agencies if they are having financial difficulty in remaining in school. They may earn up to $350 in any academic year, or up to $500 if they are not within reasonable commuting distance to the school.

Section 14 Residential Vocational Education Schools

Demonstration funds may be granted for the construction, equipment and operation of residential schools to provide vocational education for youth between 15 and 21 years of age who need full-time study on a residential basis to benefit fully from such education. Special consideration is to be given to the needs of large urban areas having substantial numbers of youth who have dropped out or are unemployed.